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community has been "investment conscious" and has engaged in little conspicuous spending except perhaps for housing.

Predominance of Private Enterprise

A characteristic feature of Syria's rapid economic development is that it has been almost wholly due to private enterprise. In spite of frequent changes in government, private enterprise has retained a buoyant outlook and continued to expand. Manufacturing industry developed with little or no government support, except that in recent years the government has provided some financial assistance and considerable protection against foreign competition. Although the government has slowly increased its services to agriculture and may be said to have contributed to its expansion by interposing no bars to the occupation and cultivation of new land, it did not play a significant role in the great increase in output. Even the development of irrigation has been left primarily to private enterprise, which has extended the irrigated area by sinking wells and, above all, by installing pumps on river banks. Thus only 48,000 hectares are irrigated by government schemes, whereas 250,000 hectares are irrigated by privately installed pumps. In the field of transport, as already indicated, private motor carriers have assumed the burden of increased traffic despite poor public roads.

The most significant, though indirect, contribution made by the government to development has been in the field of education. Increased outlays on education account for almost half of the total postwar expansion in non-defense ordinary budget expenditures, which rose from an actual total of £S 70.9 million in 1945 to an estimated figure of £S 125 million in 1954. During this period the number of schools and pupils more than doubled. The literacy rate has probably been lifted to around 40%, which compares favorably with most Arab countries. In the field of communications the government has been active, notably in the development of the port of Latakia and in the expansion and improvement of the telephone network.

The Syrian economy has now probably reached a stage in its development at which the government must undertake a more important promotional role. It is unlikely that in the future private enterprise will be able to maintain, unaided, the past rate of expansion. The amount of idle land that can be put to the plow without significant investment has

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Other government services must be effectively tied in with the community improvement program. At the national level, therefore, the administrator should be assisted by a coordinating and policy-making council on which the Ministries of Agriculture, Public Health, Education, Public Works and National Economy, and the Agricultural Bank would all be represented. Similarly, the work at the provincial or county level should be coordinated by a council representing the cooperating government services and chaired by the *mohafez* or the *kaimakam*. In fact, the community worker might best be attached to the office of the *mohafez* or *kaimakam*.

The inauguration and expansion of this rural community improvement organization will increase rather than diminish the demand for the services of the specialized officers of the Ministry of Agriculture. More agronomists, veterinarians and plant protection experts will be needed to make frequent visits to villages either on their own initiative or on request for the purpose of helping and advising community workers. In the beginning these specialists will serve a dual role, carrying out their present administrative tasks and giving technical supervision and guidance to the village workers. With further expansion of the community development system, however, the services of full-time technical specialists will be required. This will allow for the separation of administrative and regulatory functions from educational and demonstration activities, thus making it possible for the technical specialists to develop a closer personal working relationship with the villagers. The return of people now studying abroad will enable the Ministry to strengthen its staff in the provinces, but more personnel will also have to be recruited from the secondary agricultural school.

Agricultural Education and Staffing[22]

Repeatedly the mission has emphasized the vital need for more trained staff if the government is to discharge its responsibility for raising the standard of agriculture and animal husbandry. This points to the need for providing much greater facilities for education in agriculture at the secondary school and university levels. The mission has considered a suggestion to establish a faculty at the Syrian University to provide the higher education in agriculture and veterinary science for which students

[22] See Annex C, p. 318.

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must now go abroad. Ultimately such a faculty should be established, but we have concluded that for the time being it would be wiser to concentrate on the expansion of intermediate and secondary education, the more so since excellent facilities for higher education in these fields are available not far from Syria. The mission would recommend, however, that the government increase its stipends for study abroad by a total amount of £S 750,000 in the period up to the end of 1960.

There are at present four agricultural schools of intermediate grade in the provinces and one secondary school at Kharabo, near Damascus. The mission has already recommended the establishment of an additional secondary school at Kamichliye which should provide some specialized training in agricultural engineering. The mission also proposes that the existing intermediate school at Aleppo be raised to secondary rank. Finally, the accommodation at other schools should be expanded. A program of this scope would entail additional capital expenditures of about £S 2 million and recurring operating expenses of £S 750,000 up to the end of 1960.

The Kharabo school will for some time have to be the principal means of training personnel for the various agricultural programs the mission has outlined. It has already been suggested that at least another year of specialized instruction should be added to the regular curriculum at that school for the training of agricultural credit supervisors and community workers.

The curriculum of agricultural schools will need to be reviewed and revised in order to produce graduates who are adequately equipped to enter government service or to engage in farming. The curriculum is too academic at present. It must focus more on the practical problems faced by Syrian agriculture. More emphasis must be put on manual training and shopwork so that students will know something about construction, the making and repair of implements, carpentry and other essential village crafts. More opportunity for specialization should be given in the final year of schooling. Finally, it is important that students be required to do more of the practical manual work on school farms. It is, after all, only by demonstrating their ability and willingness to do practical agricultural work that they can hope to make an impact in the villages.

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tant elements in a program to attract more tourists. At present Damascus is the only Syrian city with first class hotel accommodations and even here there is an acute shortage. Such cities and towns as Aleppo, Latakia and Palmyra all urgently require good hotels for tourists and other travellers. Construction and operation of hotels should, of course, be left to private enterprise encouraged by the government and assisted by the projected investment bank. There are, however, a number of places of potential importance to the tourist trade where rest houses and restaurants rather than hotels are needed. Such facilities are not likely to be sufficiently profitable, at least in the beginning, to attract private investment. We suggest, therefore, that the government spend approximately £S 500,000 on the erection and operation of rest houses and restaurants at such locations as Ras Shamra (site of ancient city of Ugarit), Saint Simeon (ruins of old city and monastery-church in Djebel es Smaane), Al Rasafa (Christian monuments and Moslem palace), Doura Europos (ancient city), Krak des Chevaliers (crusaders' castle), Tartous and Soueida. As a UNESCO mission has suggested, some of these could probably be constructed inside existing historical buildings, thus leaving the appearance of the site undisturbed and enhancing their appeal to tourists.

The interest of tourists in the historical and archaeological treasures of Syria also provides a definite economic justification for increasing the expenditures of the Directorate General of Antiquities. This government department has jurisdiction over museums, historical monuments and archaeological excavations. It finances its operations in part from its own receipts, but the government has during the last two years contributed, on the average, £S 763,000 to its annual budget of a little over £S 1 million. In 1954 its total planned investment was about £S 450,000, of which £S 280,000 was devoted to museums, £S 120,000 to the reconstruction of monuments and £S 50,000 to excavations. Damascus possesses a notable museum of which the country can well be proud, but about £S 1 million is still required for its completion. The Aleppo museum, which houses many fine treasures, admittedly needs a new building at a cost of £S 1 million, and appropriate regional and local museums would help the visitor to visualize the cultural heritage and archaelogical finds of particular localities. Although all of this could not be realized within the 1955-60 period, we suggest that £S 2.4 million be provided to complete the Damascus museum, establish a few local museums in such places as Ras Shamra and Palmyra and at least start the new building in Aleppo.

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457 Proper maintenance and repair of monuments is perhaps even more urgent, 658 since there is considerable deterioration at present. We accordingly recom- 172 mend that expenditures for this purpose be raised, on the average, approximately 50% over the next six years. A similar increase might be contemplated for excavation work which, as in the past, will presumably be carried out in cooperation with foreign archaeological missions. All this will require an increase in the subsidies paid to the Directorate of Antiquities out of the government budget to an average annual amount of approximately £S 950,000. The gradual growth in the Directorate's own receipts will probably suffice to cover necessary increases in administrative outlays.

[491] Poor roads now impede access to many interesting historical monuments. In addition to the recommendations on the national road network made elsewhere, we believe Syria would be well advised to spend about £S 1.5 million on the improvement of local roads of importance to the tourist trade. The access roads to the Krak des Chevaliers and Saint Simeon should have the highest priority.

457 Within the not too distant future the government should contemplate the establishment of a special office charged with the promotion of tourism. The cooperation and financial support of business groups interested in the tourist trade might well be enlisted. It should not only seek to interest the foreign tourist in the attractions of Syria, but also to make the Syrian people and Syrian officials more aware of the importance of the tourist trade and of making the tourist genuinely welcome.

Government Expenditures on Industry

433 654 Although industry is preeminently a field for private enterprise, we have made in this chapter a number of recommendations entailing additional government expenditures. For the period 1955-60 these would total about £S 20.5 million, allocated as follows (in thousands of Syrian pounds):

	Total	Average annual
Manufacturing		
Investment bank	10,500	1,750
Industrial zones and workshops	1,800	300
Enforcement of labor code[a]	325	54

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873 program off to a good start the services of an expert or a small mission should be requested from UNESCO which has accumulated considerable experience in techniques of fundamental education and which was active in Syria during 1952 and 1953 in the field of vocational training.

Higher Education

Higher education has made substantial progress. The Syrian University, which started in 1919 with schools of medicine and law, now includes also faculties of letters and of sciences, schools of pharmacy, dentistry and engineering and a Higher Teachers' Training College. In 1952-53 the University had 2,580 students. In Aleppo a school of engineering has also been established. Yet a further expansion and improvement of facilities will undoubtedly be necessary since the development program will sharply increase the demand for well-trained teachers, doctors, engineers, civil servants and other qualified personnel. The University will need more teachers, equipment, laboratories and libraries. Although many Syrians will inevitably have to go abroad for special types of training, Syria should be able gradually to provide broader opportunities for higher education at home. The mission suggests that the government appoint a special committee to draw up recommendations for improving and expanding the University in line with the requirements of the economic development program that might be adopted. Such recommendations will undoubtedly entail larger expenditures on higher education, which the mission has taken into account.

658 871 *School Building*

In recent years Syria has apparently been spending about £S 2.5 million annually on new schools. Of this amount, approximately £S 1.4 million has come from municipal or local funds. We do not think that the government should spend, on the average, more than this for school building over the next six years. More could be achieved with such an expenditure, however, by economizing on the cost of construction and requiring [346] more local self-help. Secondary schools built by the Ministry of Public Works, for example, have been excessively expensive owing to their monumental character, the use of costly building materials such as carved stone and other features of a luxury nature. The past cost of £S 150-200 per

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square meter could probably be reduced to £S 80 with simpler construction and the use of less costly local materials. More could also be achieved with central government funds allocated to school building if their availability were conditioned on a larger contribution by municipalities. The latter should be expected to provide the land and half the cost of construction either in cash or labor.

In the program priority should be given to (1) the construction and expansion of vocational schools, (2) the building of experimental multipurpose schools which can provide facilities not only for regular education, but also for adult and vocational training and for community activities, and (3) the needs of municipalities which demonstrate their desire for educational facilities by a willingness to contribute substantially to their construction. The construction of additional regular schools might well be preceded by a survey of the distribution of existing schools in relation to needs. Some parts of the country are now much better provided with schools than others.

Expenditures on Education[88]

The program outlined above would entail an increase in government expenditures on education from an estimated annual level of about £S 36.5 million in 1953 and 1954 to an average of a little over £S 45 million in the period 1955-60. The breakdown of the anticipated outlays over the six-year period would be as follows (in millions of Syrian pounds):

	Total	Average annual
General education[a]	220.50	36.75
Vocational education[b]	3.25	0.54
Fundamental (adult) education	0.50	0.08
Higher education	37.53	6.25
School construction and equipment[c]	10.00	1.67
Total	271.78	45.29

[a] Including primary and secondary education.
[b] Additional expenditures only. Continuing expenditures at past levels are included under "General education."
[c] Excluding local contributions.

[88] See Annex I, p. 461.

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governmental, representing 8.7% and 2.2%, respectively, of total investment in settlements. Municipal investment is directed to water supply,[1] roads, power plants and distribution networks and sewerage facilities, in that order; very little goes for housing. Government investment is primarily in buildings, chiefly for education and public health purposes.

The mission has assumed, in preparing its proposed program for settlements and social services, that the estimated 1954 population of 3.65 million will increase over the next five years at a rate of only 1.5% annually, rather than the 2% rate of recent years. If the program is to be properly adjusted to Syria's needs, however, a population census and an improvement in the collection and organization of vital statistics are urgently needed. Better public health conditions, economic development, opening of new areas and new lines of transport and communications, changes in social patterns—all will bring about major changes in size and distribution of the population over the next few years. Any policy developed for the settlements should be planned with an eye not only to the immediate future but also to the longer term economic, social and cultural development of the country.

II EDUCATION

A PROGRESS TO DATE

For centuries, and especially during the years of foreign occupation, the only formal educational facilities were the Koranic schools, which concentrated on religious teaching. A decline in the number of these schools began about 150 years ago, and with it a gradual change in their curriculum; today about one-third of the time is devoted to religion. Meanwhile the number and significance of state primary schools has been increasing. In these, during the French occupation, the pattern of education was influenced by traditional French systems.

Since independence, Syria has started to develop its education at a faster rate and to give it a Syro-Arabic pattern. The effort of these few years and the success achieved is impressive. The budget of the Ministry of Education rose from almost £S 17 million in 1946 to £S 36.8 million in 1953, and its share of the total budget increased from 13.5% to 17.7% (in 1923 it had been only 9.1% and in 1931 9.8%). Between 1946 and 1953 the

[1] Water supplies in Damascus and Aleppo, however, are financed by government funds.

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number of primary, intermediate and secondary schools more than doubled.

The last five years alone have seen 939 new schools[2] established—an increase of 64% over the previously existing schools and an average increase of 11% per annum. Greatest gains occurred in the primary schools, the number of which rose by 81% or 11.4% per year. The number of children attending primary schools rose from about 150,000 in 1945-46 to 311,000 in 1952-53. Enrollment in intermediate and secondary schools increased even more rapidly—from 12,661 to 47,670. These advances, as well as those in the fields of technical education, teacher-training and higher education, are shown in Table 1.

Primary Education

In spite of the very large effort of the last few years, the remaining problems are enormous. According to the best available estimates, no more than 30-40% of the population is literate. It is customarily reckoned that, in a population similar in structure to Syria's, the number of children in every year of age from the 6th to the 12th is approximately equal to 2.6% of the total population. Six to eleven being the primary school age in Syria, there would be on this basis 546,000 children ($6 \times 2.6\% = 15.6\%$ of the 1952 population) of primary school age. Actually only 311,033, or presumably 56% of the eligibles, are in school.

The ratio is not the same for boys and girls. Assuming that the school-age population is divided equally between boys and girls—i.e., that there are 273,000 of each sex—then 18% of the boys and 68% of the girls do not attend school (the attendance figures are 222,779 and 88,254, respectively). Furthermore, many children do not remain in school long enough to receive a school certificate. The number who do finish has been increasing rapidly (from 624 in 1928, to 2,993 in 1940, 6,690 in 1946 and 19,850 in 1952) but it is still much lower than it should be.

There is one primary school for every 1,400 persons in Syria, with an average of 128 pupils and 3.6 teachers. Although only 13% of all primary schools are private schools, these have 18% of all primary school pupils and over 23% of the primary school teachers. The provinces of Damascus and Aleppo have the largest number of private schools; the Euphrates, Djebel Druze and Hauran have the fewest.

[2] Not new buildings, but new schools, most of which occupy rented buildings.

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Investment in Educational Facilities

For many centuries only a few school buildings or libraries were built in Syria, and those mainly for the Koranic schools. During the past years, particularly since the war, an effort has been made to provide enough school buildings, but only a small part of the requirements has been met. Although a special tax for school construction was levied by the government for the municipalities, it has not yielded enough for the purpose. Today most schools operate in rented structures which do not meet the physical requirements of a school building.

According to figures of the Ministry of Education, 416 school buildings were built between 1949 and 1954. These were mostly secondary schools, half of them in the Damascus and Aleppo mohafazats. The Ministry estimates the expenditure for these buildings at £S 8.28 million, averaging around £S 20,000 as the cost of each school of two to five classrooms.

The schools suffer from a lack of the appropriate type of furniture, equipment, books and other facilities such as projectors, slides, radios, etc. The fact that most of this equipment must be imported is largely responsible for its shortage, although the furniture and some other items can in fact be produced locally.

B THE SIX-YEAR PROGRAM IN EDUCATION

Our estimates of the cost of the education program are set out in Table 2.

The item for development of primary and secondary education assumes an average annual increase in attendance of 6%, the continuation of the present ratio between primary and secondary education, the same type of education, the same ratio of government to private schools, and no increase in teachers' salaries.

With respect to vocational training we have assumed an increase in attendance at existing and new schools from 1,676 in 1952-53 to 3,500 by 1960-61. This would necessitate a rise of £S 2.226 million in the operating expenditures of such schools over the six-year period. In addition, about £S 900,000 would be needed to cover the cost of a foreign expert (£S 50,000 a year) and of operating the first school to be used as a training center for teachers (£S 100,000 a year). For the operation of

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TABLE 2 Proposed Six-Year Program for Education

(Thousand £S)

Purpose of expenditure	Total
1. General program financed by the Ministry of Education—total budget covering primary and secondary education	220,200
2. Additional professional education—operation	2,226
3. Vocational education, foreign expert and training of teachers	900
4. Night schools	125
5. Fundamental education—regular program	99
6. Foreign expert and training program	400
7. Higher education and cultural institutions[a]	37,526
8. Total for operation	261,776
9. Construction of new schools	7,500
10. Equipment, etc.	2,500
11. Total government expenditure	271,776
12. Investment	10,000
13. Other expenses	261,776
14. Municipal expenditure for school buildings in addition to (9)	7,500
15. Total investment, public sector	17,500
16. Total program, public sector	269,276

[a] Excluding Department of Antiquities.

vocational night schools it is estimated that every student will cost £S 50 per year; the cost of this program is estimated at £S 5,000 for the first year, rising to £S 30,000 in the sixth year.

The cost of fundamental education has been reckoned at £S 3,000 per operating center annually. To this amount must be added the cost of a foreign expert and teacher-training, for which we have allowed £S 80,000 a year.

For higher education we have made provision for a modest increase in yearly allocations, pending development of future plans. A new type of all-purpose school building must be developed: one which will serve during the day for primary or secondary education, and in the evenings for professional and fundamental schools. We also propose that such buildings might be adapted to serve other community purposes as well.

If the school construction proceeds at the same rate as heretofore, and if the mission's recommendations respecting their construction, set forth in the Main Report, are adopted, five times more schoolrooms for primary

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or secondary education can be built. An expenditure of £S 3 million a year would permit construction of 500 classrooms a year or about 100 new schools, without auditorium and other facilities which can be built later. At such a rate, the country's estimated future requirement of about 4,000 schools (assuming that there are already 1,000) would be fulfilled in about 30 years. Meanwhile a considerable number of schools will undoubtedly have to continue in rented buildings.

The opening of new schools will have to be carefully planned in the light of the geographic distribution of existing facilities, conditions of overcrowding, the demand for schooling as influenced by economic factors, the distance of school-age children from existing schools and the availability of teachers. Now that a considerable portion of school-age children are in fact going to school, the location of new schools must be given more thought in order to ensure that they will meet a real need.

Thought should be given to standardization of desks and equipment and for their manufacture in Syria. There are also future possibilities for local production of some other items now imported, such as slides, maps, etc.

Finally, we recommend a reorganization of the Ministry of Education. In addition to a branch of general services with sections for planning, building, inspection, etc., there may be merit in creating five other branches, to correspond to the five major aspects of the educational program: primary education, secondary education, vocational education, fundamental education and higher education.

III PUBLIC HEALTH

Hospitals and Dispensaries

The country's 24 public and 37 private hospitals have, as of the end of 1954, a total of 4,094 beds. This means only 1.19 beds[8] for over 1,000 inhabitants, as compared with 5 per 1,000 in England, the U. S. and New Zealand or the 15 per 1,000 which some authorities consider optimum for a really healthy population. Only 1,880 of the beds, or 0.56 per 1,000 inhabitants, are in general public hospitals.

[8] In this and subsequent comparisons the number of beds per 1,000 inhabitants has been calculated on the basis of the 1952 population.

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FOREWORD

658 172 The Minister of Education of the Syrian Republic, drawing attention to the importance of the problem of historical remains in Syria, requested Unesco to send a mission of inquiry to prepare a detailed report on: (a) the general situation and importance of ancient buildings and historical and archaeological sites in Syria; (b) general measures which might be taken to preserve these buildings and sites and make best advantage of them; (c) special measures to be taken to preserve and restore buildings and sites considered particularly important or urgently in need of such preservation or restoration.

Syria is one of the countries richest in historical remains, but her very riches in this respect make heavy demands on her resources. The Syrian Government, well aware of its cultural responsibilities, shows an enlightened interest in its country's past by freely allocating the large sums needed yearly for the upkeep and enhancement of its monuments. In addition to making this financial contribution, the government also shows its interest by extending a generous welcome to expeditions of foreign scholars who wish to carry out excavations in Syria; international co-operation is thus being established and maintained, with good results, on archaeological excavation sites. The Directorate of Antiquities believes that such co-operation might well be extended to the restoration of monuments which, for their artistic value and historical importance, may be considered as belonging to all mankind. It hopes that the results of the first inquiry organized by Unesco may lead to more definite collaboration in this field. This report, marking the first step in this direction, may suggest where such collaboration is called for.

121 In conformity with our instructions, we have endeavoured to describe both the general situation as regards historical monuments and archaeological sites in Syria, and the state of individual sites and monuments. We have tried to indicate the difficulties that must be overcome in order to ensure their preservation, and to suggest certain measures which might help to expand the work already begun with such good results

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172 and transformed. Some have been abandoned and are falling into ruin, while yet others have sunk underground. Only the first group mentioned are still obviously useful and necessary. The others are exposed to dangers which threaten their fabric and their very survival. This must be fully appreciated if they are to be effectively protected.

All historical buildings were originally erected to meet some specific need, so that any given monument's existence is the result of some particular political, social, religious or military situation. Should that situation end or alter, the building may be abandoned or pulled down, having no further use in the eyes of a people aiming at a different kind of life, in which it has no place. The fate of a monument may also be threatened by clashes of economic interests; a building is an asset which may vary in value over the centuries, and some people consider it from that point of view alone; if they feel that it does not give enough return and costs too much to maintain, they will be tempted to let it fall into disuse or to pull it down. Lastly, a monument may be threatened by urban development; these are the quite legitimate needs of town planning to be considered, and a building may suddenly be found to be an obstacle to the execution of a development plan, solely designed to ease the traffic situation and improve the layout of the town.

In all the above cases, it must be shown that efforts to spare historical monuments are not incompatible with the requirements of modern life, and that the continued existence of an old building, even if it does not serve its original purpose or is disused, is nevertheless justifiable; that such a building is not just a "white elephant" but, skilfully restored and set off to proper advantage, still has a part to play in the life of the city and the country.

172 658 That is the task of the Directorate of Antiquities, which is striving to make Syria's artistic and archaeological treasures ever more widely known. A few words must be said at this point about the very useful work the Directorate is doing in the three-fold field of scientific research, the restoration of monuments, and the organization of museums. We shall later have occasion to quote a number of examples.

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16: Collart et al G-5 (1953) 1954 MD1 Syria MD1

STUDY OF HISTORICAL MONUMENTS

172 ● 67 Syria's wealth of historical remains is enriched each year by the excavation of further treasures.

Since the old exploratory expeditions made by G. Ray, M. de Vogüé, R. Dussaud and others, the excavation of vast numbers of treasures by the two American archaeological expeditions at the beginning of the century, and the more recent aerial surveys carried out by Father Poidebard, a great many sites have been systematically studied and excavated. We shall not attempt to list them here, but shall confine ourselves to drawing attention to the excellent results achieved through Syria's policy of giving scholars from other countries a free hand in this field.

During the past thirty years or so, a great many foreign excavation parties have come to work in Syria. They have unearthed groups of buildings, sometimes covering large areas; discovered ancient cities; and collected much invaluable material. By extending a welcome to them, Syria has not only added to her archaeological and artistic heritage, discovered new facts about her own history and enriched her museums (the exhibition of finds made during 1932 alone shows how numerous and important they may be), but has also inaugurated successful and friendly international collaboration in disinterested research.

Satisfactory regulations governing such collaboration were set forth in Decree No. 89, of 30 June 1947, which provides all the necessary guarantees. At the present time, six archaeological sites in Syria, varying in importance, are being explored by groups of foreign scholars from four different countries: Ras-Shamra (France), Mari (France), Apamea (Belgium), Cyrrhus (France), Resafa (Germany) and Tell es-Salhiyah (Sweden). The Syrian Directorate of Antiquities, for its part, has undertaken excavations at Palmyra, Bosra, Jebla and Raqqa. We shall refer again to these various sites in the later chapters of our report.

At the appropriate point, we shall also have to mention the publications, some of them forming impressive collections, in which the results of excavations, as they proceed, have been presented, described, analysed and commented upon. In addition, there are many studies, relating to archaeology, history, the history of art or the history of religions, for which Syrian historical remains have provided essential data; there are also monographs on particular buildings, cities or regions and, lastly, directories and catalogues. We cannot speak too highly of all these interesting and useful works, without which the monuments would be known only to a few people, and which would never have come into being if the Syrian authorities had not made a point of encouraging such research. Through these works historical remains, many of which are important and some of which may in future undergo alterations or even disappear altogether, are now known far and wide; they are part of the material to which all countries can refer in making general studies. All this gives Syria effective and highly creditable publicity.

Among so many excellent publications, we shall, in this connexion, refer only to periodicals or series of works dealing principally with Syrian archaeology and monuments, such as the review *Syria* and the fine series of volumes in the *Bibliothèque Archéologique et Historique* (hereafter referred to as BAH), published by the French Archaeological Institute in Beirut; the *Bulletin d'Études Orientales* published by the French Institute in Damascus; the *Annales Archéologiques de Syrie* and the various

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● 458 publications issued by the Syrian Directorate of Antiquities. Here indeed is proof of the general interest in Syria's archaeological and artistic treasures, suggesting that any effort to safeguard the country's wonderful historical remains will be sympathetically received by the rest of the world.

PRESERVATION AND RESTORATION OF MONUMENTS

The Syrian Directorate of Antiquities devotes a large part of its activities and resources to the consolidation and restoration of monuments. In both Damascus and Aleppo, it has excellent technicians whose whole time is devoted to this work. The steady increase in the Directorate's annual budget, which rose from 623,000 Syrian pounds in 1949 to 1,007,000 Syrian pounds in 1952, is sufficient proof of the interest taken in this work by the country's high authorities.

This is a remarkable effort, to which attention must be drawn at the outset. It has made it possible to carry out an impressive list of restorations in all parts of the country during the last few years. The principal work done in Damascus has been on the Citadel, the gates and towers of the city walls, the Roman arch in the "Street called Straight", the mosaics in the Great Mosque, and a large number of other mosques and madrasahs; at Aleppo, on the Citadel, the city walls and the Matbakh el-Ajami; and at Bosra. Palmyra, Qasr el-Heir es-Charki, Homs, Latakia, St. Simeon-Stylites and the Krak des Chevaliers, on important ancient and medieval monuments.

Needs are such, however, that the responsible services are sometimes faced with very disturbing problems. The vast number of historical remains (in Damascus alone, there are 125 buildings classified as historic monuments), the fact that they are scattered over an enormous stretch of territory, the size of some and, in many cases, the complete failure to maintain them in the past, give rise to many difficulties. Work cannot be started simultaneously on all buildings; the only way is to prepare a long-term programme of work, spread over many years, and to attend to the most urgent cases first.

Other difficulties are due to the legal position. It is obvious that the State cannot bear the whole cost when the buildings to be restored are not its property. In many cases, the owners are too poor to undertake the necessary outlay; in others, the buildings belong to wealthy communities who neglect them quite wittingly because they do not bring in any profit. In the near future, however, the authorities will probably be in a better position to intervene, for we learnt with interest of a Bill, embodying the most up-to-date ideas, which is shortly to be submitted for ratification. One of its provisions (Article 5) is that the Wakfs (religious communities) and municipalities shall set aside a certain proportion of their income for the upkeep of monuments belonging to them, and that private owners may be obliged to bear maintenance costs, either by direct payment, or by means of a mortgage loan; the work, in all cases, is carried out by the Directorate of Antiquities.

There is an interesting clause (Article 8) in Decree No. 89 concerning antiquities, under which municipalities must take account of the position of historical monuments when preparing development plans and submit such plans to the Directorate of Antiquities for approval. It is to be hoped that this clause will be more strictly enforced, so as to prevent, in future, such demolition or mutilation as has been suffered by the

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mausoleum of Safwat al-Molk and the Mosque of Tingiz in Damascus, and the Madrakh el-Ajami and the Khan al-Wazir at Aleppo. 172 458

Measures should also be taken to prevent damage being caused to historic monuments through their conversion into dwellings for refugees and poor people, as is at present the case with many madrasahs and mausolea. This would help to ensure that the excellent and, in other respects, extremely efficient work done by the Directorate of Antiquities to safeguard Syria's historic buildings produces its full effect.

MUSEUMS

In Syria, still less than elsewhere, can museums be considered exclusively as galleries for the housing of permanent exhibitions. The finds from the various excavation sites require the attention of highly skilled, and therefore centralised, technical services. On the other hand, in order to avoid the loss of treasures discovered by chance, and to preserve certain excavated objects near the place where they have been discovered, there must be local museums, or at least archaeological depositories in every region—which means decentralisation. 217

The Directorate of Antiquities has endeavoured to meet these contradictory requirements, which, incidentally, must also be taken into account in another connexion. It is a desirable and legitimate aim to have a large, rich national museum in the capital, but it is also necessary to interest other towns in the country in artistic and archaeological problems by helping them to develop their own museums.

The National Museum in Damascus has the somewhat rare advantage of having been built specially for the housing and exhibition of its treasures. In Europe, we are so accustomed to seeing old palaces, not intended for the purpose, converted into museums, that we are inevitably struck with wondering admiration at the setting and atmosphere which the Syrian authorities have managed to create for the reconstruction and presentation of three great structures of different periods and dissimilar character: the hypogeum of Yarhai from Palmyra, with its rich decorative sculpture; the synagogue of Dura-Europos, with its miraculously preserved frescoes; the Omayyad palace of Qasr el-Heir el-Gharbi, with its frescoes and extraordinary variety of stucco decoration in open-work panels and towers. The museum's other ancient and medieval galleries, although less spectacular in arrangement, contain many objects of rare quality and exceptional interest, such as an Aramaean stele from Sfire, a silvered bronze helmet from Homs, frescoes from Dura, white sculptures from Palmyra and black basalt sculptures from the Hauran, mosaics from Chahba, a carved wooden cenotaph from Tojanus, jewellery, intaglios, bronzes and pottery of various periods. Space is already inadequate and a new building, where the collections of Moslem art will be installed, is now nearing completion. When this building is in use, all departments will be less crowded and it will be possible to reserve some space for temporary exhibitions.

All finds earlier than the time of Alexander are, in principle, collected in the Aleppo Museum, which thus has a character and individuality of its own. Upon entering the museum, the visitor is immediately confronted by colossal basalt statues, lions and bulls, and huge bas-reliefs representing hunting and battle scenes; these are Hittite and Assyrian treasures from Tell

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16: Collart et al G-5 (1953) 1954 MD1 Syria

Halaf, Tell Ahmar and Arslan Tash. The wonderful statues 219
from Mari are more nearly life-size. There are also a great many objects from Ras-Shamra (Ugarit) and Mari which well repay examination. The present building is old and ill-fitted for use as a museum as regards both lighting and the size of the rooms. There are plans, however, for the building of a new museum where there will be ample room and the necessary facilities to display the collections to full advantage.

At the present time, there are local museums at Suweida and Palmyra. The former contains an interesting collection of basalt sculpture and mosaics; the latter is scarcely more than a depository crowded with statues and stone inscriptions. The Directorate of Antiquities intends to establish other small museums at Deir-es-Zor, Homs, Hama, and Tartus or Latakia. It is hoped to provide them with a library, where the principal publications relating to the region covered, together with a few general historical and archaeological works, would be available. The existing library at Damascus is extremely useful, but the one at Aleppo would be improved by the acquisition of some additional works.

In conclusion, the following list gives the titles of a few 219
works relating to the collections referred to above: 113

ABDUL-HAK, S., "L'exposition au musée de Damas des découvertes archéologiques de l'année 1952", *Museum*, vol. VII, 1954 (not yet published).

ABDUL-HAK, S. and A., *Catalogue illustré du département des antiquités gréco-romaines au musée de Damas*, Damascus, 1951.

ECOCHARD, M., "Le nouveau musée de Damas", *Museum*, vol. 55-56, 1946, p. 107-44.

PEARSON, H. F., *A guide to the synagogue of Dura-Europos*, Beirut, 1939.

PLOIX DE ROTHOIS, G., *Le musée national d'Alep*, Aleppo, 1932.

SAOUAF, S., *Alep, guide du visiteur*, Aleppo, 1931, p. 26-33.

MEANS OF PUBLICIZING MONUMENTS AND PRESENTING THEM TO BEST ADVANTAGE 172 458

The efforts made by the Syrian Directorate of Antiquities to promote the study and preservation of historical monuments might yield even better results if they were more widely understood and supported. By means of intelligent propaganda through the three channels of education, tourist development and town planning, it should be possible gradually to arouse general sympathy and interest. The important point is to show clearly that historic monuments are not merely an outdated and costly burden, but have a positive and lively interest for every individual. A publicity campaign on these lines has already been successfully undertaken, but in certain respects it might be amplified and developed.

In the field of education, interest in the country's artistic assets can be aroused by the distribution of illustrated publications and the organization of exhibitions and lectures. There are already some publications of this kind dealing with Damascus, Palmyra, Bosra and Aleppo and more could easily be produced; they should contain fine photographs and be translated into several languages. After organizing a few exhibitions of paintings and a brilliant ceremony to mark the opening of the Qasr el-Heir galleries in the Damascus Museum, the Directorate of Antiquities has recently made a conclusive experiment in this field. It has organized a wonderful exhibition of treasures discovered at archaeological sites in Syria during 1952, which has met with well-deserved success. We ourselves

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have seen the constant stream of visitors, often quite humble people, gazing at the showcases of exhibits from Mari, Ras-Shamra and Aleppo; while they are there, these visitors also go round the museum and have an opportunity of admiring its treasures. In addition, it would be very helpful if the government, which furthers the training of scientific specialists by providing fellowships for study abroad, and does so much to develop the schools, were to introduce courses on the history of Syrian art and antiquities into the curricula of Syrian secondary schools and higher educational establishments, both in Damascus and Aleppo.

Tourist development could also do much to help in the protection of historic monuments by showing the population that they can provide a steady source of income. From this point of view, Syria's art treasures have, as yet, scarcely been exploited. In the absence of suitable facilities and adequate publicity, there is still very little tourist traffic in Syria. A great deal of extremely useful work could be done in this field by an active organization, supported by the State. In order to attract foreigners to a country so rich both in natural beauties and impressive remains, it should only be necessary to improve certain sections of roads and establish one or two conveniently situated and unpretentious but well-run hotels or rest-houses, where visitors can eat and sleep in pleasant surroundings. It is astonishing that sites as fascinating as Palmyra, St. Simeon or the Krak des Chevaliers should still be so hard to reach when it would be relatively simple to organize tours either by road or air. In this respect, Greece, where the tourist trade has advanced by leaps and bounds in the space of a few years, and is now making a considerable contribution to the country's economic resources, seems to us to provide a particularly good example of what can be done in this way.

We shall have to consider town planning in greater detail

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technical skill of their builders, but also by the admirable specimens of Gothic art to be found in them.

The three great castles of Sahyun, Marqab and the Krak are most impressive of all, owing to their superb position, massive proportions and historical importance.

Sahyun (Sigon; Sadac of the Crusaders) is situated on a narrow ridge between two deep ravines, on which the Phoenicians and the Byzantines had also once established a foothold. It is a large and rather curious group of buildings, to which Byzantines, Crusaders and Arabs all in turn made their contribution. One of the most striking features is the extraordinary way the rock has been hewn out to isolate the castle, while leaving a slender pillar in the middle of the moat to support the drawbridge. Marqab (Margat of the Crusaders), like an eyrie dominating the coastal road above Baniyas, stands on a steep-sided triangular plateau, protected by its immense double sweep of fortifications. The chapel, with its undivided nave, has two beautiful arched doorways. The Krak des Chevaliers, most famous of all these castles, from its lonely vantage-point among the bare mountains, kept watch on the Homs gap. Its strong defensive works, with the double line of fortifications, round towers, curtains, machicolations, underground passages and great sloping glacis, seeming to continue the slopes outside the fortress, contrast not only with the architecture of the great hall and its portico, with their cross-ribbed vaults, pillared doorways, mullioned windows and carved ornamentation, but also with the austerer architecture of the chapel, with its undivided nave and pointed barrel vault. The surrender of the Knights Hospitallers to Beibars, and the fall of the Krak, in 1271, heralded the collapse of the Crusaders.

The same contrast between the exterior and interior architecture strikes the visitor to the stronghold of Safita (Castel-Blanc), around which modern houses have been built in such a way as to preserve the concentric ground plan of the medieval town. The great square tower, in whose walls there are only a few tiny apertures barely visible to the eye, contains a massive and beautiful church with an undivided nave and pointed barrel vault, and, on the upper storey, a high room with a groined vault, divided into two by a line of pillars. This contrast is also to be found at Tartus where the remains of two beautiful rooms with cross-ribbed vaulting are still to be seen inside the fortress of the Templars; surrounded by enormous ramparts. At some distance, inside the town, the almost completely preserved cathedral of Our Lady of Tortosa, an interesting example of a fortified church, with its austere and very unusual façade, its corner towers, its three vaulted naves and the curious and as yet unexplained structure of one of its pillars, still remains "one of the most beautiful monuments left on this coast by the Crusaders".

PRESENT-DAY PROBLEMS

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The monuments of which we have been speaking call for two observations.

Firstly, it must be emphasized that considerable expenditure is necessary for the upkeep and consolidation of these great groups of buildings, certain parts of which are in constant danger of collapse. The Directorate of Antiquities is doing valiant work, but its resources are limited and it is unable to take action everywhere at the same time. It first turned its attention to the urgent repairs needed by the Krak des Chevs-

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liers, which, since its restoration in 1936 (involving the removal of the village built within the ramparts and the repairing of the terraces) had suffered considerable damage. The new work of restoration included the rebuilding of walls, the repairing of vaults, the reconstruction of a stairway that had collapsed, and the replacing of the missing parts of the windows and doorways in the portico of the great hall. But other misfortunes are continually occurring: a tower is struck by lightning; plants grow upon the glacis. It is constantly necessary to set to again—and the castle concerned is only one of many.

We are well aware of the great interest which the Directorate of Antiquities is taking in this matter and of its determination to continue its efforts; it is deserving of the highest praise. It would be well, however, if the skilled technicians in charge of the work could have the advice of competent specialists whenever some delicate piece of architecture is in need of repair. The same applies to the present restoration of the minaret of the Great Mosque at Aleppo.

We are also of the opinion—and this is our second observation—that this work would be easier and less burdensome if the tourist attraction of these magnificent buildings were taken into account. At present they are almost inaccessible, as is shown by the ridiculously small number of visitors (the average is less than 120 a month at the Krak). The Krak or Marqab can be reached only by jeep and it is impossible to travel the whole distance to Sahyun by road. Nevertheless, there were once tracks leading to these castles and they simply need a few miles of repair and regular upkeep thereafter. If that were done, there is no doubt that there would be a tremendous increase in the number of tourists, and considerable funds for the work of restoration could be derived from admission fees.

From this point of view, the region offers real advantages which it would not be difficult to exploit. It is quite near the sea and, if the road were better, a visit to the Krak could be included in the programme of the numerous cruises calling along this coast, which already visit Baalbek and Damascus. The establishment of a suitable hotel at Tartus would make it possible for travellers with the necessary time at their disposal to make interesting excursions to Ruad, Safita and Marqab, just as they can from Latakia to Jebla, Ras-Shamra and Sahyun. This would also be a good opportunity of restoring the church at Tartus, which is at present being used by the municipality as a storehouse. Moreover, if a rest-house were fitted up inside the Krak it would be easier to visit the castle from Tartus, Tripoli, Homs, Hama or even Damascus.

This would permit the successful development of a region whose natural beauties vie in attraction with its incomparable monuments, to the advantage not only of the local population but of the country as a whole.

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112 constantly adding, year by year, to the heritage of historic monuments.

112 We have frequently had occasion to compliment the Direc-
658 torate of Antiquities on the manner in which it is carrying out its manifold tasks by ensuring the preservation and supervision of monuments and archaeological sites, executing a substantial programme of restoration work each year, organizing museums and promoting investigations and learned publications. By its own efforts as well as by those which it has instigated or encouraged, it is achieving remarkable results over a very wide area. Tribute must also be paid to the understanding and generosity of the Syrian Government which is providing the Directorate with the necessary means for its work.

In proportion to its resources, Syria is devoting very substantial sums to its monuments. The importance of the latter warrants this policy, and also explains the interest they are arousing throughout the world, far beyond the boundaries of the country. It also justifies the desire of the Directorate of Antiquities for a better understanding and fuller support of its efforts. We have indicated a few of the means that we consider most apt to assist it in its efforts.

The importance of learned publications must once again be emphasized. The historic monuments described and commented upon therein can be studied by scholars of all countries and become more truly a part of the cultural treasures of mankind, so that, even if they are afterwards lost, the memory of them remains. It is not enough, however, to bring them to the notice of a small circle of experts in this way; interest can be aroused among a wider public by attractive "popular" works, exhibitions and lectures, by the introduction of special courses in schools, and, in other countries, by intelligent publicity calculated to attract tourists to Syria, thus benefiting the country in various ways. We have already indicated how helpful it would be to set up, at Damascus and Aleppo, local committees of artists and scholars to advise the authorities on all questions of town planning. We also feel that international missions of experts, particularly on architectural restoration, could, in suitable cases make detailed studies, in co-operation

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with the Directorate of Antiquities, of the measures to be taken for the better presentation of certain large and important buildings. 172 658

If the results of our survey help to make the artistic and archaeological treasures of Syria better known and appreciated

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abroad as well as in the country itself, if they can in any way assist the work so well begun by the Directorate of Antiquities to promote the protection and study of historic monuments, and if they suggest new and useful forms of co-operation for that purpose, we shall feel that our work has been well worth while.

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3:Royal Institute of International Affairs U-4 (no date)1954 M1 Middle East
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In neither country is there an officer caste or a strong military tradition, though the present Syrian regime is trying to create one.

Social Survey

The ruling class in both countries is drawn from wealthy families; titles do not exist and the 'old' rich families, whose position and wealth come from land, mix freely with the 'new' rich families, whose money comes from commerce. There is no stigma in engaging in trade and even members of the upper class are merchants. A middle class of functionaries and employees has been growing up since 1948 in the three main cities. Their flats, between the splendour of the rich quarter and the huddle of the *suq*, are being built in quantities and their new, middle-class way of life is based on European standards. The mass of the people are artisans and labourers. The urban artisan approaches the middle class and the rural labourer approaches the hard life of the nomad; for the farm labourer the standard of living is generally low.

The Press

The press of both countries is important but no one paper or group of papers has established an ascendancy. Damascus had at one time over twenty daily papers none of which could guarantee a circulation of over 3,000. The same state of affairs holds true in Beirut where most parties issue Arabic and in some cases French papers; there are also Armenian newspapers and one English daily.

Individual Lebanese have founded papers and *Le Commerce du Levant*, published in Beirut, has a standing comparable with *La Bourse Egyptienne*. In both countries press censorship has frequently closed down a paper only for it to re-emerge under another name, and in Syria the military dictatorship has reduced the press to a mere mouthpiece of official propaganda.

Education

In both countries there are primary and secondary schools, and the number of schools and students increase each year. Primary education is compulsory, and although reliable figures of literacy are not available,[1] it may be assumed that the percentage of illiterates is decreasing in both countries, but is higher in Syria than in Lebanon. In Syria, most of the schools are run by the state and of the private schools (which are

[1] An estimate for Syria for 1947 given in UN, Dept. of Social Affairs, *Preliminary Report on the World Social Situation*, 1952, was 40–50 per cent.

3:Royal Institute of International Affairs U-4 (no date)1954 M1 Middle East
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mainly Christian) those run by foreigners are now finding it difficult to disarm the suspicions of the Government. In Lebanon, there are almost as many private as state schools and the foreign schools still work without difficulty. There are higher schools for teachers and for agriculture and engineering in Syria and for agriculture in Lebanon, but it is usual for a student to pass from a secondary school directly to a university. The following table shows the various types of schools and number of students.

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Type	Lebanon, 1951		Syria, 1951–2	
	Schools	*Students*	*Schools*	*Students*
State:				
Primary	977	83,252	1,850	237,775
Secondary	..	..	57	26,237
Technical	30	2,381	11	2,146
Teachers	2	165	10	1,233
Reformatory	1	106	—	—
Private	601	84,788	387	65,936
Foreign	149	41,402	56	9,852
Total:	1,760	212,094	2,371	343,179

.. = not available.

(Sources: *Statistical Abstract of Syria, 1951–2*, Damascus, 1952; *Statesman's Year-Book*, 1953).

The American University of Beirut is non-sectarian and has students from all over the Middle East. It encourages the use of Arabic as well as English, and its most renowned faculties are those of medicine and social sciences. The University of St Joseph in Beirut is run by the Society of Jesus. Attached to this university are schools of medicine, law, and theology, subsidized by the French Government and administered by the Society, in which teaching is carried on in the French language. A National University has recently been started by the Lebanese Government. The Syrian National University in Damascus teaches in Arabic and its most important faculties are those of law and medicine. A separate body for the study of the Arabic language is the Arab Academy of Damascus.

Health

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Malaria and amoebic dysentery are endemic and, though efforts are being made to drain breeding-grounds, preventive medicine is only in a rudimentary stage. Good hospitals exist in the cities and more are under construction; qualified doctors practise in all the towns, but in the villages there is still a lack

44:Matthews and Akrawi S,G-3 (1945-1946)1949 MI Middle East
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versity. The committee makes its decisions on the basis of reports submitted to it by the Section of Educational Research of the Committee on Education and Instruction.

The Committee on Purchases is under the chairmanship of the accountant of the Ministry, with two other members appointed by the Director General of Education. It has charge of all buying of equipment, of receiving bids, and of preparing the contracts of the Ministry.

Beside the Directorate General of Education and its branches covering the system of public education for the entire country, three other institutions and agencies are connected directly with the Minister of Education:

1. The Department of Antiquities is headed by a director who is under the jurisdiction of the Minister. It has charge of the museum of antiquities, supervises all excavations, and preserves archeological sites. Its regulations are incorporated in Decree No. 352 (1945) "Embodying the Regulations of the Directorate of Antiquities."

2. The Syrian University, which until 1946 consisted of the Faculties of Medicine and Law, was in the process of reorganization at the time of the visit of the American Council Commission. It is described in chapter 22.

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3. The Arab Academy, which was founded during the Arab government regime following World War I, is a body of learned Arabists, which has its own assembly of members in Syria and corresponding members in other Arabic and Islamic countries as well as among orientalists. It holds public lectures, issues a magazine known as the *Review of the Arab Academy* which appeared first in 1920 and in which are published the researches and studies of its members. It also maintains a public library which contains about 20,000 printed books and more than 4,000 Arabic manuscripts. The Academy has at times attempted to lay down Arabic equivalents to modern scientific terms.

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Educational Finance

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Educational finance in Syria is centralized. The bulk of the expenditure on the schools and their equipment, on the salaries of teachers and janitors, comes from the budget of the Ministry of Education, which is a part of the general budget of the Syrian Republic. The Ottoman Education Laws of 1869 and 1913, which had remained the basic education laws during the French-mandate period, had provided that the expenditures of elementary schools should be borne by the local authorities. This, however, remained more a theoretical than a practical possibility in most of the Ottoman Empire. In Syria, some school buildings were provided—in Turkish, as in French, days—by the central governments, some by the localities or

44:Matthews and Akrawi S, G-3 (1945-1946)1949 MI Middle East
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municipalities, and the majority were, and are still, rented buildings, the rent being paid from the central budget. Salaries and other expenses are also paid from the funds of the Ministry of Education.

Table 56 gives a picture of the growth of the educational budget since

TABLE 56

GROWTH OF THE EDUCATIONAL BUDGET, SYRIA, 1923–46

Year	General Budget	Educational Budget	Percent of General Budget	Number of Government Schools	Enrollment in Government Schools
1923*	£S 3,970,640†	£S 361,914	9.1	310	22,443
1931*	11,932,693	1,170,892	9.8	479	45,491
1941†	13,603,100	2,272,623	16.7	...	...
1945‡	103,678,000	9,953,568	9.6	694	93,727
1946‡	129,704,000	14,127,388	10.9	...	...

* Actual expenditure. Figures from the annual *Rapports sur la Situation de la Syrie et du Liban* (published by the French Government).
† The rate of exchange of the Syro-Lebanese pound was £S2.18 to the dollar in 1946.
‡ Estimates. Figures from the Ministry of Education.

the early days of the French mandate. Although the table shows a very large increase in budget allotments for education from £S361,914 in 1923 to £S14,127,388 in 1946, these figures should not be taken at their face value. The Syro-Lebanese currency, being based on the franc, had fluctuated in value along with the franc until 1943. Moreover, the increased amounts for 1945 and 1946 show clearly the influence of inflation. The budgetary provisions, therefore, are not based on the same rates of value. For this reason it would not be correct to say that the budgetary provision for education in 1946 was about thirty-nine times that of 1923. About the only thing that can be said is that the Syrian government, anxious in this era of independence to expand public education, is giving generously to the Ministry of Education. A budget of about £S16,000,000 was planned for 1947.

It will be seen from Table 56 that the percentage of the educational budget to the general budget has fluctuated from 9.1 to 16.7. In spite of the rapid increase in the general budget, the educational budget, while growing remarkably in the last four years, did not keep pace with the general budget. The percentages declined from 16.7 in 1941 to 9.6 in 1945 and picked up somewhat in 1946. This is a phenomenon that has been common in most of the other Arab states in the last few years. The 1945 budget was supporting 694 public schools of all types and 93,727 pupils in these schools, representing respectively 2.2 and 4.2 times the number of public schools and number of pupils in 1923.

The distribution of the budget over the various fields of public education in 1945 is shown in Table 57.

44:Matthews and Akrawi S,G-3 (1945-1946)1949 MI Middle East
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*874 About one-third of the student body was from other countries, mainly Arab.

[197] Teaching at the Syrian University is conducted entirely in Arabic. The Faculty of Medicine is the only such faculty in the Arabic world which teaches in Arabic.

Educational Missions

● 658 177 Educational missions were sent chiefly to France prior to World War II. With the French government as mandatary power, with French advisers to the Ministry of Education, and with the Syrian educational system following French educational methods and ideas, this was to be expected. As has already been said, graduates of French universities and institutions were shown a decided preference in appointments to posts in the Ministry of Education. The situation was not different in other departments of the government. It was only natural, therefore, that even students going abroad for study at their own expense usually preferred to go to France.

Even in 1943–44, when the French grip on Syria had loosened, 58 out of a toal of 101 students on educational missions were studying in France; most of them had begun their study in the prewar period. Of the other 43, there were 37 in Egypt and 6 in Beirut.

For the year 1946–47 it was planned to send 120 students abroad. None of these was being sent to France, partly because of the aversion to the French that has developed in Syria, and partly because the new Secondary-School Certificate is no longer recognized in France. Most of the students were being sent by the Ministry of Education. The remainder were being sent by other ministries. The countries to which the students are being sent are Belgium, Switzerland (evidently taking the place of France), Great Britain, the United States, and Egypt. Only a few are destined to study in Great Britain or the United States largely because of the difficulty of securing admission to American and British universities. The subjects to be studied cover a wide range and include the various branches of engineering, architecture, technical education, agriculture, irrigation, mathematics, the sciences, finance, medicine, public and school health, law, archeology, Semitics, history, English, education, commerce, and Arabic literature.

The Education of Teachers

*874 The education of teachers in Syria has gone through a number of stages.
*875 In the latest of these, two kinds of teachers colleges were maintained: the

44:Matthews and Akrawi S, G-3 (1945-1946)1949 Mi Middle East
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*871 The non-French primary schools increased by 163 pupils, while the secondary schools decreased by 70. It can, therefore, be said that enrollment in the other foreign schools remained substantially the same and that these schools were unaffected. The reaction was entirely against the French schools.

As all three foreign vocational schools had been French and had closed, there were no foreign vocational schools in 1945–46.

The future of the French schools remains uncertain. It is probable that those French schools which were originally Syrian schools will be registered as private schools, as indeed some have already been. The others, or at least some of them, will probably reopen, but with much less prestige and with reduced enrollment. It is reported that a few French schools were allowed to reopen in 1946–47.

The Franco-Syrian crisis and the new plan of the Ministry of Education to abolish the teaching of a foreign language in the primary schools created a problem for some of the private schools. Christian schools especially, largely in response to the demands of parents who are usually keen on their children's learning foreign languages, frequently start the teaching of French in the first grade and often even in the kindergarten. This they did even at the time when government schools started French in the fourth grade.

With the coming of the new regime of independence and the abolition of the foreign language from the primary-school curriculum, pressure was brought to bear upon the private schools to follow the lead of the public schools—or at least to postpone the teaching of the foreign language until the two upper grades. This, however, would put the private schools at a disadvantage with the foreign schools, almost all of which begin the teaching of the foreign language, usually French or English, very early. Representations were, therefore, made by some schools that if such a course were followed, the private schools would lose a large number of their pupils to the foreign schools, owing to the insistence of parents on their children's learning a foreign language. The representations of the schools were successful, at least temporarily. How permanent such an arrangement can be, and how far there will be a shift from French, which prevailed in most of the private Christian schools, to the English language is a matter of the future.

Grants-in-Aid

●658 *871 A decree was passed in March 1945 setting down the conditions for giving grants-in-aid to private schools and other cultural institutions.[2] This

[2] Decree No. 261, dated March 25, 1945, "Embodying the Regulations for Grants-in-Aid to Private Schools and to Cultural, Artistic, and Sporting Institutions."

44:Matthews and Akrawi S, G-3 (1945-1946)1949 MI Middle East
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658 decree, designed to encourage private individual and group effort "in the 871 service of science, letters, fine arts, and physical education," provides that financial aid is to be given to private schools and educational institutions in proportion to their service to education and to their financial needs. Criteria are established to serve as a basis for the distribution of funds: (1) the level of the school and the number of its classes and pupils; (2) the standard of education provided; (3) the number of teachers, their qualifications and teaching ability; (4) the curriculum and the degree of its agreement with the public-school curriculum; (5) the number of students participating in the public examinations and the percentage of those passing; (6) the income and expenditures of the school; and (7) the fees levied upon students and the number of students exempted from the payment of fees.[3] Grants are to be allotted annually by the Education Council in the first half of August. The council's decisions in this matter must be based upon the reports of the inspectors and directors of education concerning each school. If necessary, the Ministry of Education may pay the grant in the form of salaries paid to teachers which it selects or appoints to the schools.

Bases are also laid down in the 1945 decree for the distribution of grants to cultural, artistic, and sporting societies and clubs.

This provision as to grants-in-aid was of great help to the Ministry of Education in its attempts to meet the crisis created by the closing of the French schools. The budgetary provisions for the grants were trebled by being increased from £S100,000 (about $45,450) to £S302,500 (about $137,500). Private schools were encouraged to open new classes to take in more pupils, and grants were given to stimulate the opening of new schools.

Private Schools

872 Private primary schools are usually classified in Syria by the denomina-
873 tion of the authorities controlling them. Table 69 shows the denominational distribution of private primary schools in Syria for 1944–45.

The data for the 9 private secondary and 8 intermediate schools, which have an enrollment of 1,743 students, are not given by denominations.

It does not, however, follow that all the schools classed as controlled by denominations are actually so. Many of them are really secular and are simply classified according to the sect of the controlling authority, following a custom started during the French mandate which emphasized sectarian matters as a policy. In actual fact private schools are of three main categories:

[3] Compare with Iraq, pp. 128–29.